CORRIGENDA ET ADDENDA

AD

ANALYSIN FLUXIONUM.



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ANALYSIS FLUXIONUM.

M U U D A

CORRIGENDA. PART I.

PRÆFAT. pag. vii, lin. ult. pro § 131, lege § 26, 27.—p. x, pro § 162, lin. ult. l. § 155 et § 205, not. (p)

PARS PRIMA, p. 2, § 5, pro Daniel, l. Jacobus.—p. 6, not. 2, pro Institutionis—celebrantur, l. Institutis—celebratur.—p. 9, lin. 1, pro A + B, I. A × B.—p. 10, § 17, pro φωναντα l. φωνεντα.—not. (d) lin. ult. pro \$ 162-164, l. § 154-157. - p. 13, not. lin. 4. a fine, pro Bezart l. Bezout. -p. 18, § 36, lin. 3, pro semissis, l. semissis a2. -p. 25, § 50, lin. 9, pro For it is, 1. For in GEOMETRY it is. - p. 31, § 73, lin. 6, pro nomini, 1. nomine.

PARS SECUNDA, p. 35, comma 4, pro puncti, l. puncto. p. 39, § 84, lin. 3, pro latera, 1. laterum co-efficientia. Dele not. (g), et transfer ad p. 56, \$ 124. p. 42, \$ 90, com. 1, lin. 6, pro vel 2aA, l. vel 2bA. p. 43, \$ 92, infere Caf. 2. Fluxio, &c .- p. 44, \$ 94.

Caf. 4. Lege, Fluxio dignitatis cujusvis negativæ (A-m) æquatur indici illius dignitatis (- m), fluxioni lateris (a), ejusque co-efficienti (A-m-1), in se continuè dultis. Seu fluxio $A^{-m} = -maA^{-m-1}$. 94, in demonstratione, lin. 3, post $\frac{-a}{A^2}$, infere = $-aA^{-2}$.—et ibidem, lin. ult. post $\frac{-ma}{A^{m+1}}$, insere = and curvilinear spaces as composed min the like

no man of Bath Q E. D. sported as spied

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P. 45, § 97, lin. ult. ante § 98, insere, - Cas. 6. Cor. - Hinc fluxio fractionis -, five restanguli AmB-n, per Caf. 1 et 4, fiet maB-n Am-1 f being increated by nbA^mB^{-n-1} , $=\frac{maA^{m-1}}{B^n}-\frac{nbA^m}{B^{n+1}}$ nbA^m Q. E. D.

P. 49.

P. 49, § 105, lin. 7, pro indicet l. induit.—p. 50, lin. 3, à fine, pro terminis l. termini.—p. 57, lin. 9, insere (sive cbm = 1) = $\frac{\dot{x}}{x}$;—p. 57, lin. ult. pro co-efficienti l. co-efficientem.

APPENDIX SECUNDA.—P. 76, not. (b), lin. 9, pro bixapedarum 1. bexapedarum.—p. 77, lin. 3, pro præmissorum 1. præmissarum.—p. 84, lin. 16, pro light 1. life.—p. 85, not. lin. 4, à fine, pro an l. our.—p. 90, lin. 4, pro αωθεν 1. ανωθεν.—p. 92, lin. 6, pro opisicis 1. opisicio.—p. 96, not. lin. 6, pro Nuev 1. Nuevη.—p. 104, not. lin. 10, pro Ηλιος 1. Ηελ-ιος.—p. 106, lin. 12, pro demonstrari 1. demonstrare.

Pars Prima.—P. 3, § 7. See last page of this, p. 19, § 38, post—Newtoni discipulis: nempe, 1. Robins, qui anno 1735, in a Discourse concerning the Nature and Certainty of Sir Isaac Newton's Methods of Fluxions and of Prime and Ultimate Ratios;—hasce methodos, luculentiùs breviúsque exposuit; magisque ad mentem ipsius inventoris sagacissimi, (meo judicio suffragantibus amicis dignissimis, analystisque simul peritissimis, Episcopo Horsley et Barone Maseres), quam quilibet ex interpretibus insequentibus; 2. Colson, anno insequente 1736, in the Method of Fluxions and Insinite Series, &c. 3. Maclaurin, anno 1742, in A Treatise of Fluxions; et his omnibus multo recentior, 4. Le Croix, anno 1779, in Traité du Calcul differentiel, edentibus analystis summis La Place et Le Gendre; quorum ex operibus excerpta quædam hanc rem illustrantia proferre non pigebit.

I. Robins's Account of the Methods of Fluxions, and of Prime and Ultimate Ratios.

"To avoid the imperfection with which the Method of Indivisibles was justly charged, (in which all curves are considered as composed of an infinite number of indivisible straight lines, and curvilinear spaces as composed in the like manner of parallelograms; which being an obscure and indistinct perception, was obnoxious to error;) Sir Isaac Newton instituted an Analysis for these problems concerning the Tangents of Curve-lines, and the mensuration of Curvilinear Spaces, upon other principles.

"Confidering magnitudes, not under the notion of being increased by a repeated accession of parts; but as generated by a continued motion or flux.; he discovered a Method to compare together the velocities wherewith homogeneous magnitudes

magnitudes increase; and thereby has taught an Analysis free from all obscurity and indistinctness.

- "Moreover, to facilitate the demonstrations for these kind of Problems, he invented a synthetic form of reasoning from the prime and ultimate ratios of the contemporaneous augments or decrements of those magnitudes; which is much more concise than the method of demonstrating used by the ancients, yet is equally diffinct and conclusive.
- "I. The method employed by the ancient Geometers (fince commonly called the Method of Exhaustions) confists in describing upon the curvilinear space a rectilinear one, which, though not equal to the other, yet might differ from it less than by any the most minute difference whatsoever, that should be proposed; and thereby proving the two spaces they would compare, could be neither greater nor less than each other.
- "For example, in order to prove the equality between the space comprehended within the circumference of a circle; and a triangle whose base should be equal to the circumference of that circle; and its altitude to the semidiameter; Archimedes takes this method:
- "About the circle he circumscribes a polygon; and by multiplying the sides of this polygon, he makes it appear, that there may at length be circumscribed such a one as shall exceed the circle less than by any difference that shall be proposed, how minute soever that difference be.—By this means it was easy to prove that the triangle aforesaid is not greater than the circle: for were it greater, how small soever be the excess, it were possible to circumscribe about the circle a polygon less than the triangle; but the circumserence of the polygon is greater than the circumserence of the circle; therefore the polygon can never be less, but must be always greater than the triangle: (for the polygon is equal to a triangle, whose altitude is the semidiameter of the circle, and base equal to the circumserence of the polygon.) It appears therefore impossible for the triangle to be greater than the circle.
- Thus far Archimedes makes use of the polygon circumscribing the circle, and no farther: but, inscribing another within the circle, he proves, by a similar process of reasoning, that it is impossible for the triangle to be less than the circle: whereby at length it becomes certain, that the triangle is neither greater nor less than the circle, but equal to it.

 Q. E. D.
- However the triangle may be proved not to be less than the circle, by the circumscribed polygon also: for were it less, another triangle whose base is greater than its base, and height equal, might be taken which would not be greater than the circle; but a polygon can be circumscribed about the circle, the circumserence of which shall exceed the circumserence of the circle by less than any line that can be named; consequently by less than the difference between

between the two bases; that is, the circumference of the polygon shall be less than the circumference of the circle; and consequently, the polygon less than the given triangle; therefore it is impossible that this triangle should not exceed the circle, since it is greater than the polygon: consequently, the given triangle cannot be less than the circle.

- Thus the circle and triangle may be proved to be equal by comparing them with one polygon only: and Sir Isaac Newton has instituted upon this principle, a briefer method of conception and expression for demonstrating this fort of propositions than what was used by the ancients; and his ideas are equally distinct and adequate to the subject with theirs, though more complex. It became the first writers to choose the most simple form of expression and the least compounded ideas possible; but Sir Isaac Newton thought he should oblige the mathematicians by using brevity, provided he introduced no mode of conception difficult to be comprehended by those who are not unskilled in the ancient methods of writing.
- I. CASE. "In this method, any fixed quantity, which fome varying quantity, by a continual augmentation or diminution, shall perpetually approach but never pass, is considered as the quantity to which the varying quantity will at last or ultimately become equal; provided the varying quantity can be made in its approach to the other to differ from it by less than by any quantity how minute soever that can be assigned. Princip. Lib. I. Lem. 1.
- "Upon this principle, the equality between the forementioned circle and triangle is at once deducible: for fince the polygon circumfcribing the circle approaches to each according to all the conditions above fet down, this polygon is to be confidered as ultimately becoming equal to both; and confequently, they must be esteemed equal to each other.—That this is a just conclusion is most evident; for if either of these magnitudes be supposed less than the other, this polygon could not approach to the least within some affignable difference.
- 1 DEFINITION. "An ultimate magnitude therefore may be defined the limit to which a varying magnitude can approach within any degree of nearness whatever, though it can never be made absolutely equal to it.
- Thus the foregoing circle is to be called the ultimate magnitude of the polygon circumscribing it; because this polygon by increasing the number of its sides can be made to differ from the circle less than by any space that can be proposed, how small soever; and yet the polygon can never become equal to the circle or less. In like manner, the circle will be the ultimate magnitude of the polygon inscribed.
- Again, the foregoing triangle is the ultimate magnitude, of the constructed triangle; because, the new base being always equal to the circumserence of the polygon, will constantly be greater than the given base, which is equal to the circumserence

circumference of the circle only; and yet the new base may be made to approach the given one nearer than by any difference that can be named.

- 2 Case. Ratios also may so vary, as to be confined after the same manner to some determined limit; and such limit of any ratio is here considered as that, with which the varying ratio will ultimately coincide. Princip. Lib. I. Lem. I.
- 2 DEFINITION. If there be two quantities therefore, that are (one or both) continually varying, either by being continually augmented or continually diminished; and if the proportion they bear to each other does by this manner perpetually vary, but in such a manner that it constantly approaches nearer and nearer to some determined proportion; and can also be brought at last in it's approach nearer to this determined proportion than to any other that can be assigned; but can never pass it; this determined proportion is then called the ultimate ratio of these varying quantities.
- "The same ratio may be called sometimes the prime, at other times the ultimate ratio of the same varying quantities; according as these quantities are considered either under the notion of vanishing, or of being produced before the imagination by an uninterrupted motion. The doctrine under examination receives it's name from both these ways of expression.
- N. B. "The reader will perceive that I am endeavouring to explain Sir Isac Newton's expressions, Ratio ultima quantitatum evanescentium. And I have rendered the Latin participle evanescens by the English word "vanishing," and and not by the word "evanescent," which having the form of a noun adjective, does not so certainly imply that motion which ought here to be kept carefully in mind: the quantities under consideration become vanishing, from the time we first ascribe to them this perpetual diminution; that is, from the time they are quantities going to vanish: and as during their diminution, they have continually different proportions to each other; so the limiting ratio between them, is not to be called merely Ratio barum quantitatum evanescentium, but ultima ratio. Princip. p. 37.
- titatum nascentium; but no English participle occurring to me whereby to render the word nascens, I have been obliged to use circumsocution. Under the present conception of the varying quantities, they are to be called nascentes, not only at the very instant of their first production, but (according to the sense in which such participles are used in common speech) after the same manner as when we say of a body which has lain at rest, that it is beginning to move, though it may have been some little time in motion: on this account, we must not use the simple expression Ratio quantitatum nascentium, but to denote the limiting ratio, we must call it, Ratio prima quantitatum nascentium. Princip. ibid.

chions from the I First definition mean which it is grounded; this

demonstration

II. "Upon these definitions, we may ground the following Propositions:

1 PROP. When varying magnitudes keep constantly the same proportion to each other, their ultimate magnitudes are in the same proportion.

"Let A and B be two varying magnitudes, which keep constantly in the same proportion to each other; and let C be the ultimate magnitude of A, and D the ultimate magnitude of B: I say that C is to D in the same proportion as A to B.

Since A is a varying magnitude continually approaching to C, but can never become equal to it, A may be either always greater or always less than C.

In the first place suppose it greater: when A is greater than C, A B in approaching to C, it is continually diminished; therefore B keeping always in the same proportion to A, B in approaching to it's limit D, is also continually diminished:

Now, if possible, let the ratio of C to D be greater than that of A to B; (that is, suppose C to have to some magnitude, E, greater than D, the same proportion as A to B).

Since C is the ultimate magnitude of A in the sense of the preceding definition, A can be made to approach nearer to C than by any difference that can be proposed, but can never become equal to it or less: therefore, since C is to E as A to B, B will always exceed E; consequently, can never approach to D so near as by the excess E; which is absurd a For, since D is supposed the ultimate magnitude of B, it can be approached by B nearer than by any assignable difference.

After the same manner, neither can the ratio of D to C be greater than that of B to A. and other grant of the than that of B to A. and other grant of the case others are the same of B. to A. and other grant of the case others.

In the second place, if the varying magnitude A be less than C; it follows in like manner, that neither the ratio of C to D can be less than that of A to B; nor the ratio of D to C less than that of B to A.

COR. The ultimate magnitudes of the same or equal varying magnitudes are equal.

"Now from this corollary (which evidently follows from the proposition) the forementioned equality between the circle and triangle will immediately appear: for the circle being the ultimate magnitude of the polygon, and the given triangle, the ultimate magnitude of the constructed triangle; since the polygon and the constructed triangle are equal, by this corollary, the circle and given triangle will be also equal.

Q. E. D.

N. B. " If the preceding proposition and it's corollary be admitted as genuine deductions from the [First] definition upon which it is grounded; this demonstration

demonstration of this equality of the circle and triangle cannot be excepted to: for no objection can lie against the definition itself, as no inference is there deduced, but only the sense explained of the term [Ultimate magnitude] defined in it."

- 2. PROP. " All the ultimate ratios of the same varying ratio are the same with each other.
- "Suppose the ratio of A to B continually varies by the variation of one or both of the terms A and B: if the ratio of C to D be the ultimate ratio of A to B, and the ratio of E to F be likewise the ultimate ratio of the same; I say, the ratio of C to D is the same with the ratio of E to F.—For, if you deny it, the ratio of E to F differing from the ratio of C to D, the ratio of A to B will either pass that of E to F, or can never approach so near it as to the ratio of C to D: insomuch that the ratio of E to F cannot be the ultimate ratio of A to B, contrary to the hypothesis.

 Q. E. D.
- "The two definitions here fet down, together with the general propositions annexed to them, comprehend the whole foundation of this method.
- III. "We find in former writers some attempts towards so much of this method as depends upon the first definition.
- Bodies, has given a proposition nothing different but in the form of the expression, from that we have subjoined to our first definition: from which he demonstrates with brevity and elegance his propositions concerning the mensuration and center of gravity of the sphere, spheroid, parabolical and hyperbolical conoids. This author writ before the doctrine of Indivisibles was proposed to the world.
- "And fince, Andrew Tacquet, in his treatife on the Cylindrical and Annular Solids, has made the same proposition, though something differently expressed, the basis of his demonstrations; at the same time very judiciously exposing the inconclusiveness of the reasoning from indivisibles.
- "However, the consideration of the limits of varying proportions, when the quantities themselves expressing those proportions have no limits, (which renders this Method of prime and ultimate ratios much more extensive,) we owe entirely to Sir Isaac Newton. That this method, as thus compleated, is applicable not only to the subjects treated of by the Ancients in the Method of Exhaustions, but to many others also of the greatest importance, appears from our author's immortal Treatise on the Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy.
- "For it must now be manifest, that mathematical quantities become the proper object of this Dostrine of Fluxions, whenever they are supposed to increase by

by any continued mode of prolongation, dilatation, expansion, or other kind of augmentation; provided such augmentation be directed by some general rule whence the measure of the increase of these quantities may from time to time be estimated. And when different homogeneous magnitudes increase after this manner together, one may vary faster than another. Now the velocity of increase in each quantity is the fluxion of that quantity. This is the true interpretation of Fluxions; Incrementorum velocitates. For this doctrine does not suppose the fluents themselves to have any motion: fluxions are not the velocities with which the fluents or even the increments which these fluents receive are themselves moved; but the degrees of velocity wherewith those increments are generated—the terms velocity and celerity are applied in a figurative sense, to denote the degree [or rate] wherewith this augmentation in every part proceeds.

"Subjects incapable of local motion, fuch as fluxions themselves, may also have their fluxions. In this we do not ascribe to these fluxions any actual motion; (for, to ascribe motion or velocity to what is itself only a velocity would be wholly unintelligible.) The fluxion of another fluxion, is only a variation in the velocity which is that fluxion. In short, light, beat, sound, the motion of bodies, the power of gravity, and whatever else is capable of variation, and of having that variation assigned, for this reason, comes under the present doctrine: nothing more being understood by the fluxion of any subject, than the degree [or rate] of it's variation.

"As the Dostrine of Fluxions enabled Sir Isaac Newton to investigate the geometrical problems, whereby he was conducted in those remote searches into Nature, which have been the subject of universal admiration; so to the Method of Prime and Ultimate Ratios is owing the surprising brevity, wherewith he has demonstrated those discoveries."

and tince, Andrets Tarquet, in his treatife on the Chienbrical and Appel

I shall offer no apology for the length of this Analysis, in which I have endeavoured to bring together into one comprehensive view the scattered parts of that masterly argument, by which Robins has explained the leading principles of the Doctrine of Prime and Ultimate Ratios, upon which Newton's Method of Fluxions is founded; it is far superior indeed to the subsequent explanations of professed commentators; and it is a high gravification to myself to find, that the mode of explanation, which I adopted of the Doctrine of Linnis, is precisely the same as Robins's; long before I had seen his admirable westifes, which did not fall into my hands until lately, a considerable time after the publication of the Analysis Fluxionsm. It deserves indeed to be better known and more studied; as containing a full and sufficient resutation of the cavils of gainsayers both ancient and modern, against the nature and certainty of the Method of Fluxions.

II. Colson's Account of the Method of Fluxions, &c.

III. Maclaurin's Account of the Method of Fluxions, &c.

After the end of Maclaurin's Account, &c. p. 23, insert

IV. La Croix's Account of the Method of Fluxions.

To the foregoing testimonies of the most eminent British mathematicians I am happy to add the following, which reslects high honour on the candor and liberality of a distinguished French analyst, La Croix, confessing the superiority of the Method of Fluxions over the Differential Calculus; from a curious and valuable Extract surnished even by the prejudiced Monthly Review, 1800. Vol. 31. Append. p. 497.

"Newton supposes lines to be generated by the motion of a point; and surfaces, by the motion of a line; and he gave the name of Fluxions to the velocities which regulated the motions. These notions, although rigorous, are foreign to Geometry, and their application is difficult. It is true that, by imagining a point which moves on a line, while the line itself is carried forward with an uniform velocity, we may represent any curve whatsoever: but the velocity of the describing point being variable, at each instant, we can only determine it by recurring to the Method of the Ancients (Exbaustions), or to that of Prime and Ultimate Ratios.

Fluxions were to him only a mean of giving a fensible existence to the quantities on which he operated. By the Method of Prime and Ultimate Ratios he understood the investigation of the relations of quantities at the first and last instant of their existence, when the quantities were generated or vanished together; and he found in the prime ratio of spaces described by the ordinate on the line of the abscissas, and by the describing point of the ordinate (spaces which he called Moments), the ratio of the fluxion of the abscissa to that of the ordinate; whence he determined the direction of the tangent. The Calculus was merely that used by Barrow in his Method of Tangents, which Newton by means of his Formula for the Binomial Theorem, and by his reduction into series, had extended to irrational expressions.

"The advantage of the Method of Fluxions over the Differential Calculus, in point of Metaphysique, consists in this: That, fluxions being finite quantities, their moments are only infinitely small quantities of the first order, and their fluxions are finite: by these means, the consideration of infinitely small quantities of superior orders is excluded."

inante ratios

How was it possible for Monthly Reviewers, after reciting this luminous and honourable testimony to the superiority of the Method of Fluxions by the ablest expounders of the Differential Calculus, La Croix and his illustrious editors La Place and Le Gendre, redeeming the character of the French analysts, which had been impaired by the aspersions of a D' Alembert and of a La Grange on the immortal Newton's fame; how was it possible, I say, that "their eyes could still be so holden," after adducing this testimony, as still to affert, that "Newton himself was not perfetlly satisfied of the stability of the ground on which be had established his Method of Fluxions!"—to wonder, [how] that [after] baving beyond all controversy obtained TRUTH, mathematicians should have been unable to make it SCIENCE; for the method was simple and easy in it's application and rigorous in it's conclusions!"-" Viewed as a whole it possessed the greatest stability; though it's foundations seen through a mist, seemed uncertain and of discordant and unsuitable materials!"-" Had the native insignificancy of the Fluxionary Calculus doomed it to perish, the wit and poignant raillery of Berkeley had perpetuated it's memory, and 'ridiculed it into immortality:' but in spite of these attacks, the English Mathematicians have still persevered in their opinions; deeming it perhaps more meritorious to err with NEWTON than to think justly with OTHER men," [i. e. THE MONTHLY REVIEWERS]! pp. 495-499.—And they will still persevere in their attachment to the Father of British Science.

How widely different are the sentiments of the illustrious La Place, which they cite in the next page, 500, from his Letter to M. La Croix.

"I see, with much pleasure, that you are engaged in a great work on the Differential and Integral Calculus. The several methods, by being brought together, will throw mutual light on each other. What they contain in common is most generally their true metaphysique: and this is the cause why the metaphysique is almost always the last thing that is discovered.—It is only by restetting on the route which others have followed, that we are able to generalize methods and to discover their true metaphysics."

This indeed is worthy of a mighty master of the Sciences, and a genuine disciple of Newton, treading in his steps, and thereby surpassing his teacher.

Page 29, after § 68, and before § 69, insert :

The following masterly explanation of the term momentum, as employed by Newton, is given by Robins, in the Conclusion of his excellent tract, p. 75.

"In determining the ultimate ratios between the contemporaneous differences of quantities, it is often previously required to consider each of these differences apart, in order to discover how much of those differences is necessary for expressing that ultimate ratio. In this case, Sir Isaac Newton distinguishes by the name of momentum, so much of any difference as constitutes the term used in expressing this ultimate ratio.

" Thus,

"Thus, if A and B denote varying quantities, and their contemporaneous increments be represented by a and b, the rectangle under any given line M and a is the contemporaneous increment of the rectangle MA; and Ab + Ba+ ab is the like increment of the rectangle AB.—And here, the whole increment Ma represents the momentum of the rectangle MA; but the part, Ab + Ba, only, (and not the whole increment Ab + Ba + ab,) is called the momentum of the rectangle AB: because so much only of this latter increment is required for determining the ultimate ratio of the increment of MA to the increment of AB; this ratio being the same with the ultimate ratio of Ma to Ab + Ba: (for the ultimate ratio of Ab + Ba to Ab + Ba + ab is the ratio of equality. Consequently, the ultimate ratio of Ma to Ab + Ba differs not from the ultimate ratio of Ma to Ab + Ba + ab. Q. E. D.

These momenta equally relate to the decrements of quantities as to their increments; and the ultimate ratio of increments and of decrements at the same place is the same. Therefore the momentum of any body may be determined, either by confidering the increment of the decrement of that quantity; or even by confidering both together. And in determining the momentum of the rectangle AB, Sir Isaac Newton has taken the last of these methods; because by this means the superfluous rectangle (ab) is sooner disengaged from the demonstration.

"Here it must always be remembered, that the only use which ought ever to be made of these momenta is to compare them one with another, and for no other purpose than to determine "the ultimate or prime proportion between the several increments or decrements from whence they are deduced." § 66.

"Herein the Method of Prime and Ultimate Ratios effentially differs from that of Indivisibles; for in that method, these momenta are considered absolutely as parts, whereof their respective quantities are actually composed. But though these momenta have no final magnitude, (which would be necessary to make their parts capable of compounding a whole by accumulation,) yet their ultimate ratios are as truly affignable, as the ratios between any quantities whatfoever. Therefore none of the objections made against the doctrine of Indivisibles are of the least weight against this method: but while we carefully attend to the observation here laid down, we shall be as secure from error, and the mind will receive as full fatisfaction, as in any the most unexceptionable demonstration of ordicares uni ex alymptons parallelas quartim ".bilaua

process entident apperbols. P. 82. Insert in the beginning of note (e),

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The opinion of the Indian Brahmins is thus recorded by Strabo, B. 15.

Νομιζειν μεν γας δη ΤΟΝ ΕΝΘΑΔΕ ΒΙΟΝ ώς αν ακμην πυομενον ειναι, ΤΟΝ ΔΕ ΘΑΝΑΤΟΝ γενεσιν εις τον οντώς βιον, και τον ευδαιμονά τοις Φιλοσοφησάσι.

"For they are accustomed to account the present life here, as if it were an embryo only; but death, a birth into the real life and the happy, reserved for the seekers of wisdom."

The following curious and valuable anecdote, &c.

Pars Prima, p. 3, § 7, after 1. 7. Vide quoque § 96 hujus Insert:

Idque insuper constat, ex ipsius Newtoni testimonio, Quadrat. Curvar. sub initio: "Incidi paulatim annis 1665 et 1666, in Methodum Fluxionum, quâ bic usus sum in Quadratura Curvarum."—

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by this means the toperficeus red ingle (as) is sooner differgaged, from the

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instance; and the ultimate rade of incicracuts and his decreases.

P. 56, § 122, dele l. 8 et 9, et substitue insequentia:

Erítque ratio modularis in quovis systemate logarithmorum ratio ista cujus logarithmus est ipse modulus. Hæc autem ratio in omni systemate eadem erit; scilicet ratio seriei infinitæ $\mathbf{I} + \frac{\mathbf{I}}{\mathbf{I}} + \frac{\mathbf{I}}{\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{I}} + \frac{\mathbf{I}}{\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{I}} + \frac{\mathbf{I}}{\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{I}}$, &c. ad 1, ejúsve reciproca: seu ratio numeri 2.71828, &c ad 1, ejúsve reciproca, nempe, ratio fractionis decimalis 0.367879, &c. ad 1.

N. B. Vulgò fertur, et quibusdam auctoribus etiàm melioris notæ placet, (scilicet, Montucla, &c.) logarithmorum systemata Briggianum atque Neperianum non nisi diversis hyperbolis, et diversis curvis logarithmicis, seu logisticis, designari posse; sed minùs rectè, ut videtur: nam, si unitas designet quadratum constans hyperbola rectangulæ, (contentum utique asymptotis et ordinatis externis hisce parallelis), areæ inter ordinatas uni ex asymptotis parallelas, alteram asymptotam, ipsamque hyperbolam interclusæ, logarithmorum systema. Neperianum ritè exponent ; sin verò area inter duas ordinatas uni ex asymptotis parallelas quarum major sit decupla minoris, et alteram asymptotam, et hyperbolam ipsam, interclusa per unitatem designetur, seu vocetur unitas, areæ asymptoticæ ejusdem hyperbolæ, quæ anteà systema Neperianum exponebant, nunc æquo jure systema Briggianum exponent.

In quâvis autem curva logistica, seu logarithmica, se subtangens curvæ (quæ per totam curvam est semper ejuschem magnitudinis,) per unitatem designetur, abscissæ axis, seu asymptotæ, inter duas ordinatas interceptæ, logarithmos systematis

fystematis Neperiani exponent; si verò abscissa quævis axis, seu asymptotæ, inter duas ordinatàs, quarum major sit decupla minoris, intercepta, (quæ paritèr per totam curvam erit semper ejusdem magnitudinis,) per unitatem designetur, eædem abscissæ axis, sive asymptotæ, quæ anteà exhibebant logarithmos systematis Neperiani, nunc exhibebunt logarithmos systematis Briggiani.

Hinc constat, epitheton "byperbolicum," logarithmis Neperianis vulgò tributum, Briggianis aut alterius cujusvis systematis logarithmis æquè competere. Vide Cl. Maseres, Dissertation on the Nature of Logarithms, in his Elements of Plane Trigonometry.

123. Fluxiones logarithmorum, &c.

P. 57, dele totum Cas. 2, et p. 58 totam N. B.; pro quibus substitue quod hic sequitur;

Case. 2. Fiat $y^x = z$. Erítque $\log z = \log y \times x$. Sed $\log z$ est $= \frac{\dot{x}}{z}$, per § 127; et $\log y \times x$ est $= \log y \times \dot{x} + x \times \frac{\dot{y}}{y}$, per § 84. Ergò $\frac{\dot{z}}{z}$ erit $= \log y \times \dot{x} + x \times \frac{\dot{y}}{y}$; et proindè, \dot{z} erit $= \log y \times \dot{x}z + xz\frac{\dot{y}}{y}$ $= \log y \times \dot{x}y^x + x\dot{y}y^{x-1}$, restituendo scilicet y^x pro z; hoc est, fluxio quantitatis variabilis (y^x) equatur duabus quantitatibus, quarum una ($\log y \times \dot{x}y^x$) est fluxio ipsius quantitatis exponentialis (y^x) quasi pro constanti babitæ, ut in Case. 1; altera autem, $(x\dot{y}y^{x-1})$ fluxio ejusdem quantitatis, quasi indici constanti dessignatæ. Q. E. D.

FINIS.

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systematic Meteriani exponent; si verò abscissa quavis anis, seu ospraptita, inter duas occinatas, quartan unique sit decupia minoria, intercepta, (ques particul exponente, per totan curvam erit semper ejustient magnisulminist, per unitarem designature, exclosi abicidicaxis, sec asymptom, que cauca exclusivari-lega-richards si termans Nurerians, not examinente loga matto presentation. Esta gianti.

Hine conflat, epitheron "by or Jojani," logarithmis Neperious valge tribuntum, Briggianis aut alterius cajulus Historius degatichmis acque competere, Vide C. Magnes, Differentia on the Master of Logarithms, in his Elements of Plates reignometry.

. The Flering legisleticum, Ro.

P. 57, d'ele torum Cest 2, et p. 58 reis ... B.,; pro quibus l'abstitue qual'icisequieur ;

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